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ABSTRACT

Two studies are reported: "Elements of 'Good Teaching': A Comparison of Education Students' Perceptions in Botswana, California, Finland, and Zimbabwe" (John Yoder, Larry Shaw, Ben Siyakwazi, Kaarina Yli-Renko) and "Intercultural Communication: A Challenge to German Language Teacher Education" (Kaarina Yli-Renko). The first explored differences in the perceptions of 279 teachers in training in 4 countries concerning what constitutes effective and ineffective teaching. Subjects were asked to identify among their own primary school teachers the specific teacher they considered most effective and the teacher considered most ineffective. Results show that in Botswana, Finland, and Zimbabwe, teachers were knowledgeable about subject matter and able to teach well. Californians considered personal factors of greater importance than did other subjects. The Finns placed a higher priority on instructional skills than on personality characteristics. All groups felt class management skills were of least importance. The second study investigated factors affecting oral communication in German by Finns, based on a survey of 129 Germans living in Finland. Results indicate slowness, shyness, and communicative helplessness of Finns in speaking German may cause problems in intercultural communication. Finnish behavior also appeared to Germans to be distant and guarded, their intonation patterns monotonous, and their communication less non-verbal. (MSE)

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RESEARCH REPORT A:156

UNIVERSITY OF TURKU
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

KAARINA YLI-RENKO, ed.

CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES: A CHALLENGE TO TEACHER EDUCATION

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CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES: A CHALLENGE TO TEACHER EDUCATION

49 pages

Abstract

John Yoder, Larry Shaw, Ben Siyakwazi & Kaarina Yli-Renko.
ELEMENTS OF "GOOD TEACHING": A COMPARISON OF EDUCATION STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS IN BOTSWANA, CALIFORNIA, FINLAND AND ZIMBABWE.

The purpose of the study was to explore some of the differences in perceptions of education students in four countries (Botswana, Finland, United States and Zimbabwe) about what constitutes "effective" and "ineffective" teaching. The data was gathered by questionnaire from 279 teachers-in-training. The teachers-in-training identified among their own primary school teachers the specific teacher whom they considered most "effective" and the one most "ineffective".

The results show that effective Botswana, Finnish and Zimbabwe teachers were first of all knowledgeable about their subject matter and able to teach well. Californians considered personal factors to be of considerably greater importance than did the respondents from the other countries. When viewing ineffective teachers the Finns differed from the other three groups by placing instructional skills as more important than personality characteristics. All four groups agreed that class management characteristics were of least importance. There was strong agreement between the African countries on the relative importance of the characteristics, the western rankings were more like each other than like the African responses.

Conclusions and interpretation must be tentative, since the instrument used has only face validity and the restricted sample of each country cannot necessarily be regarded as representative and the findings not unequivocal.

While there is an agreement about which of the listed characteristics contribute toward effective and ineffective teaching, there are important differences. It seems reasonable to speculate that the social, cultural and educational contexts of these countries lead to different philosophical assumptions about the role and purposes of education and schooling and, by extension, to notions of about the role and function of teaching.

Kaarina Yli-Renko. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION: A CHALLENGE TO GERMAN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION.

This study was a natural continuation of the previous studies which indicated that most students study German in school because of their need for future use as speakers. Student-needs as well as the demands of the labor market, require as the most important aim of foreign language teaching in school oral communication.

The purpose of the study was to discover factors which affect oral German communication by Finns. These factors were based on the observations of German speakers (N = 129) living in Finland. The data was gathered by a questionnaire, with Likert-type and open-ended questions. The study was based on the concept of language learning as a lifelong endeavour.

The results indicate that the slowness, shyness and communicative helplessness of Finns in speaking German may cause barriers in intercultural communication with native German speaking people. The behavior of Finns seems to native German speakers to be distant and guarded. The monotonous intonation of Finns disturbed the respondents. Finns use also much less non-verbal communication than do Germans.

The greatest dilemma for Finns in intercultural communication in German seems to be the Finnish culture related communication patterns that the Finns transfer even to communication in German. As to the knowledge of the language, the results indicate that Finns master the German grammar rather well.

These findings lead to clear-cut conclusions regarding teaching of German in school in Finland. German language teachers have a rather limited knowledge of what the present official aim communicative competence really means in practice. In curriculum, intercultural communication would become as the official aim more meaningful to teachers. It is also a broader concept than communicative competence, including educational aims as well. A knowledge and understanding of cultural differences, empathy, intellectual and emotional flexibility and a willingness to make an effort to communicate, along with communicative competence, form the basis of intercultural communication, and will help to lower the barriers caused by perceived differences in culture and lead to successful communication across cultural boundaries. In addition, one has to remember that intercultural communication involves both international understanding and peace education as well.

As a consequence, German language teacher education must meet the demands of intercultural communication, which are so great that the philological faculties in Finland should take them more into consideration than they do today.

Keywords: cross-cultural studies, intercultural communication, teacher education, language teacher education, German language teaching

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PREFACE

First of all, I want to thank Professor Anna-Liisa Leino from whom came the opportunity to broaden my research project on cross-cultural studies beyond language-teacher education: she led me to the international research group. The first article **Elements of "good teaching"** is an outcome of this co-operation.

In today's world intercultural communication is a big challenge to teacher education. Joint research programs on comparative studies are a valuable means of fostering intercultural communication in teacher education. Cross-cultural knowledge and understanding and cultural awareness which are, along with language proficiency, essential for intercultural communication, ought to be important aims for future development of teacher education.

Fortunately, there now is increasing knowledge to guide teacher educators in equipping student-teachers with a sufficient basis for intercultural communication. However, not only is knowledge important, we also need a fundamental attitude-change in regards to internationalization. Concerning internationalization it is important to establish research collaboration between education researchers.

The members of our research group are from three continents:
North America:
Professor John Yoder. Faculty of Education, Fresno Pacific College. Fresno, California.
Professor Yoder was a member of the Faculty of Education at the University of Botswana in Gaborone, Botswana when this study was undertaken.

Professor Larry Shaw. College of Education, San Diego State University. San Diego, California.

Africa:

Professor Ben Siyakwazi. Department of Teacher Education, University of Zimbabwe. Harare, Zimbabwe.

Europe:

Associate Professor Kaarina Yli-Renko. Department of Teacher Education, University of Turku. Turku, Finland.

I am fortunate to work in an internationally stimulating environment. I want especially to thank Professor Erkki Lahdes, Dean of the Faculty of Education, and my colleagues Associate Professor Sirkku Aho and Associate Professor Jorma Heikkilä for helping me gather the Finnish data for this study.

The German part of this report **Interkulturelle Kommunikation: Eine Herausforderung an die Deutschlehrerausbildung** deals with intercultural communication of Finns in German and with cross-cultural differences in manners and mannerisms of everyday life from native German speakers' point of view. This study is part of a more extensive research project to promote intercultural communication in foreign language teacher education and in foreign language teaching in general education, which in Finland covers the comprehensive school and the senior secondary school.

Turku, June 1992

Kaarina Yli-Renko

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JOHN YODER, LARRY SHAW, BEN SIYAKWAZI, KAARINA YLI-RENKO.

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ELEMENTS OF "GOOD TEACHING": A COMPARISON OF EDUCATION STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS IN BOTSWANA, CALIFORNIA, FINLAND AND ZIMBABWE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The debate about what constitutes good teaching is on-going and perennial in the industrialized countries of the world. Unfortunately, those same arguments and their attendant "common wisdom" tends to be carried over into the developing world without examining the ways in which the social and cultural contexts of the originating countries differ from those of the receiving ones. The extent to which "effective" classroom practices and teaching methodologies interact with the social norms and expectations of the recipient culture, has not been widely investigated; yet its importance would seem self-evident.

Studies of schooling in developing countries often note critically, for example, the dominance of didactic, lecture and fact-oriented teaching methods in the primary and secondary school classrooms (e.g., Prophet and Rowell, 1991; Fuller and Snyder, 1991; Fuller, 1987). Such methods are typically observed to provide little opportunity for meaningful interaction between students and teacher and to show little concern for developing a positive classroom atmosphere or for relating to students as persons. Nevertheless, interventions in search of "improved effectiveness" tend to meet with mixed results at best and it is noted that "attitudes and ingrained habits change slowly" (Yoder & Mautle, 1991). Little is known about the reasons for such findings; nor about the reciprocal effects which teaching methodologies and the social, cultural and educational contexts in which they take place may have on each other.

It will be argued, here, that pedagogy is not context-nor culture-free and that it cannot be assumed that it's "truths" (if there are such) can be transplanted from one cultural and social context to another with impunity. In many African societies, for example, children have traditionally had clearly defined social roles and for a child to speak out in the presence of a respected elder without being first recognized and asked to speak would be considered highly inappropriate. In the United States, on the other hand, the rules for social interaction between children and adults are very different. It seems reasonable to believe that such differences (there are, of course, many others which could be mentioned) will influence the ways in which teachers in different social and cultural environments will evaluate classroom interactions and will select from among alternate teaching strategies.

For purposes of this investigation, three broadly defined, (though overlapping) general approaches to improvement of teaching have been distilled from the accumulated research and literature on teaching. There is first of all the preponderate literature that focuses on instructional matters and teaching methodologies. Here the essence of effective teaching is in an arena broadly defined as instructional and focuses on teaching strategies and methods. The general assumption made in this literature is that the best teacher is the one who has selected and implemented the best *instructional* method (e.g. Kourilsky & Quaranta, 1987; Hudgins, 1970, Orlich, et al., 1985).

A second broad tradition in improvement of teaching is represented by those who focus on techniques for classroom management, discipline and establishing a positive classroom environment (e.g. Asiedu-Akrofi, 1981; Hurt, et al., 1978; Talmage, et al., 1984; Veenman,

1984). While this tradition does not discount the importance of good instruction it nevertheless assumes that skill in managing the class and the "climate" which prevails there (as exemplified in "good discipline") will have a determining impact on the effectiveness of the instruction.

The third broad tradition identified here, is one that focuses on teachers as persons and on the relationships they develop with their students (e.g. Brophy & Good, 1974; Maslow, 1954; Youngs, et al., 1970). Hawkins, et al., (1988), for example, investigated conditions under which the "social bonding" of low achieving students in could be improved under the assumption that improved social bonding should lead to improved achievement. (The so-called "Humanistic Education Movement" rooted variously in persons such as Dewey (1933), Goodman (1964), Holt (1964), Kozol (1967), Neill (1960) and Rogers (1969) and others should doubtless also be included in this broad tradition, though there is obvious overlap with some of the other approaches.) The working premise here is that the teacher as a person and the relationship she or he develops with the students is a critical component of effectiveness (It might be observed in passing that many of these persons would doubtless be unhappy with a definition of school effectiveness that focuses mainly on the academic).

The purpose of this study was to explore some of the differences in perceptions of education students in four countries about what constitutes "effective" and "ineffective" teaching. Two of the countries, Finland and The United States, were "Western" (i.e., "industrialized") while two, Botswana and Zimbabwe, were African (i.e., "developing"). It was hypothesized that the differences in the social, cultural and

educational context of these countries would lead to differences in the ways in which "good teaching" is perceived (and implicitly defined) and therefore may influence notions about which pedagogies and teaching methodologies are considered normative or desirable. Though not directly tested here, it is speculated that persistent differences in classroom practice (i.e., those that seem resistant to change or intervention) (see Psacharopoulos, 1986; Snyder & Ramatsui, 1990; Yoder & Mautle, 1991) may arise, at least in part, from such differences, and that these, in turn, arise from the broad social and cultural milieu in which schooling takes place.

1.2 THE COUNTRIES

Botswana

A former British protectorate with an historically underdeveloped educational system, Botswana has experienced a very high rate of development and expansion since achieving independence in 1966. The British roots of the educational system are evident in a variety of ways including the nationwide selection examinations (the "O Level" exams are administered directly by the Cambridge Examinations Syndicate) that are used to determine entry into successively more restricted places at each higher level of education. Less than one third of primary school leavers are able to find places in senior secondary school.

The urban areas have undergone rapid modernization since independence, and the country enjoys a high per capita gross domestic product (GDP) largely because of the discovery and commercial

development of major deposits of high-grade diamonds. The rural areas remain largely traditional, however, and the majority of that population still engages in subsistence farming and herding, working in the informal sector or are unemployed. Large inequities of income and living standards, especially between urban and rural dwellers result. Social and cultural norms for the rural and uneducated population, in particular, remain traditional. Education is seen to be a major vehicle by which one may better oneself or "get ahead" (Chilisa, 1987).

The United States (California)

In the United States education, as it is known today, is comprehensive and school attendance is compulsory up to at least age 16. California is the most populous, and among the most rapidly growing, of the states. The educational system of California has come under great pressure in recent years as it has tried to accommodate mushrooming school populations that contain large numbers of non-white and first-generation Americans, with increasingly inadequate funds. Education that is appropriate to the individual has long been understood to be a fundamental right of each child.

Finland

Finland's history and geography have contributed to its occupying a sometimes shifting political and economic space somewhere between the former Eastern Block and Western Europe, especially during the first half of this century. During this time there have been several shifts of government and political orientation, nevertheless there has been a long tradition of formal education. Schooling is compulsory

from ages 7-16 and the country enjoys nearly universal literacy. National examinations are administered at age 17-18 for selection into university or other advanced training.

Zimbabwe

The Zimbabwe (formerly Rhodesia) educational system, too, was inherited from the British but was adapted by the dominant white Rhodesians to fit their view of a separate society with separate educational systems for blacks and whites. In 1982, following a long struggle for independence by the counry's black majority, Rhodesia became independent, black ruled, Zimbabwe.

Sweeping changes, including many educational reforms, followed. Still, economic hardship, high levels of unemployment and poverty continue to characterize many parts of the country, especially in the rural areas. Because of it's longer and more intense colonial experience, the present-day educational system is in some ways more established than that of Botswana, though it faces extreme pressure from demands for school places while struggling with very limited resources. Selection examinations are developed and administered by internal bodies. As in Botswana, and in spite of high unemployment among educated persons, education continues seen as the major vehicle by which one may "get ahead".

2. *METHODOLOGY*

2.1. PARTICIPANTS

Two hundreds and seventy-nine teachers-in-training (some of whom had actually taught before entering their present teacher training) from four countries (Botswana, United States, Finland and Zimbabwe) were included in the study as indicated in Table One below. All had been, or were training to become, primary (elementary) school teachers.

Table 1. Participants

Gender	Botswana		USA (California)		Finland		Zimbabwe	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	17	32%	12	17%	14	14%	36	67%
Female	37	68%	58	83%	87	86%	18	33%
Total	54	100%	70	100%	101	100%	54	100%
Age								
15-19	0	0%	1	1%	13	13%	0	0%
20-29	7	13%	59	84%	86	13%	33	61%
30-39	47	87%	8	11%	2	2%	19	35%
40-49	0	0%	2	3%	0	0%	2	4%
Total	54	100%	70	100%	101	100%	54	100%

2.2. *INSTRUMENTATION*

A two-part questionnaire, each with two sections, requested respondents, first of all, to identify, among their own primary school teachers, the specific teacher whom they considered to have been the most "effective" ("effectiveness" was explicitly left undefined). Demographic information about the selected (i.e., remembered) teacher was requested which included their gender and an estimate of the approximate age of the teacher at the time of having been taught by them.

Next, respondents were asked to rank-order fourteen different teacher characteristics (or teaching skills) in terms of how important they thought each of these to have been in contributing toward making this teacher seem effective. For the second section, respondents were asked to repeat the process, but this time with reference to their most *ineffective* teacher.

The teacher characteristics or skills to be ranked by the respondents consisted of fourteen statements, each of which could be clustered into one of three groupings, or categories, of teaching characteristics corresponding to the three broad "improvement of teaching" traditions noted above. These were Instruction variables (five), Personal variables (five) and Class Management variables (four). The statements were presented in random order on the questionnaire. The same fourteen characteristics were presented twice; once for ranking the effective teachers and again for ranking the ineffective teachers. For the effective teachers, the statements were usually presented in a positive form while for the ineffective teachers, the statements were presented in a negative form where appropriate.

Though the procedure requested participants to respond in terms of particular individuals that they remembered, it was nevertheless assumed that to a large extent, the responses would represent the participants' own views of "good teaching" -- indicated both in the persons they chose as exemplars and in the importance which they ascribed to statements describing their choice.

The questionnaire was administered in English for all samples except in Finland where it was translated into Finnish. (University and Teacher Education instruction in both Botswana and Zimbabwe takes place in English so there was no need for translation there.)

3. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

3.1. DESCRIPTIVE/DEMOGRAPHIC

A comparison of the gender and the age group of remembered effective and ineffective teachers is shown in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2.
Percentage of Effective and Ineffective Teachers by Gender and by Country

	Botswana			California			Finland			Zimbabwe		
	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect
Male	67	76	50	33	30	17	81	35	46	87	83	81
Female	39	24	50	107	70	83	121	65	55	19	17	19
Total	106	100	100	140	100	100	202	100	100	106	100	100

N = Number of remembered teachers (including both effective and ineffective).
% Effect = Percentage of remembered effective teachers who were male and female, respectively (i.e. percent of column).
% Ineffect = Percentage of remembered ineffective teachers who were male and female, respectively.

A within-country chi square analysis comparing effective and ineffective teachers by gender yielded significant results ($p < .01$) for Botswana only, though results approached significance for California ($p = .07$).

Clearly, Botswana respondents were more likely to remember their more effective teachers as having been male notwithstanding the larger number of female teachers in Botswana primary schools (Fuller & Snyder, 1991). For the rest there was no clear pattern of differences between sexes.

Table 3.
Percentage of Effective and Ineffective Teachers by Age Group and by Country

	Botswana			California			Finland			Zimbabwe		
Age	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect	N	% Effect	% Ineffect
20-29	0	0	0	75	24	83	14	9	5	24	20	25
30-39	19	10	28	45	49	14	73	43	30	56	65	41
40-49	54	64	39	12	15	3	70	35	33	24	13	34
50-59	31	26	33	8	12	0	45	13	32	1	2	0
Total	104	100	100	140	100	100	202	100	100	105	100	100

N = Number of remembered teachers (including both effective and ineffective).
% Effect = Percentage of remembered effective teachers at each age level (i.e. percent of column).
% Ineffect = Percentage of remembered ineffective teachers at each level.

Within-country chi square analyses comparing effective and ineffective teachers by age group yielded significant results ($p<.001$) for all countries.

According to Table 3, Botswana respondents remembered almost all (ninety percent) of their effective teachers to have been forty years old or older. Ineffective teachers were distributed across all three represented age groups. California respondents, on the other hand,

represented age groups. California respondents, on the other hand, had strong memories of ineffective teachers as between 20-29 years old (more than eighty-five percent of the ineffective teachers were in this age group), though about one fourth of the effective teachers were also in that age group. Both Finland and Zimbabwe respondents tended to remember their effective teachers as having been younger than those they considered ineffective.

Tables 2 and 3, then, indicate substantial differences in the ways in which respondents in the four countries viewed the relationship between both gender and age and effectiveness or inefffectiveness as teachers. Botswana respondents, for example, are more likely to have remembered their most effective teacher as male and between the ages of 40-49 in contrast to California and Zimbabwe respondents who were more likely to remember their most effective teacher as younger than forty. Finnish and Zimbabwe respondents agree that both ineffective and effective teachers are about as likely to have been one sex as the other.

It seems likely that the observed differences between the countries reflect, at least in part, different patterns of teacher recruitment and training, and different career patterns, for teachers in the respective countries. On the other hand, though the data do not permit conclusions, they raise questions about the extent to which these "memories" might have been colored by differences in cultural perspectives on gender and age.

3.2 *RANKINGS OF EFFECTIVE TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS*

Respondents were requested to rank order fourteen statements which, in their opinion, contributed most to the effectiveness of the teacher that they had selected (remembered). The mean of the rankings assigned by respondents were calculated for each characteristic and combined in an overall ranking by country. This ranking is presented in Table 4. Since the most important characteristics were ranked beginning with one, the lower the mean for each characteristic, the more important it was considered to be.

Table 4.
Mean Rankings of Characteristics Which Contribute Most Toward Perceived Teacher Effectiveness by Teachers from Four Countries.

Rank						Mean Ranking			
Bot	Cal	Fin	Zim	Characteristic	Var Cat	Bot	Cal	Fin	Zim
1	8	8	5	Knew a Great Deal About the Subject	Instruction	5.1	7.9	6.9	6.7
2	1	4	3	Had Friendly Personality	Personal	5.3	3.6	5.6	5.1
3	5	5	2	Planned Interesting & Motivating Lessons	Instruction	5.5	4.7	6.1	5.0
4	7	2	4	Made Difficult Subjects Understandable	Instruction	6.3	7.5	4.7	5.5
5	2	9	1	Cared about Individual Students	Personal	6.4	3.9	8.1	4.9
6	11	11	7	Extra Help for Slow Learners	Instruction	6.4	9.7	8.8	7.1
7	12	7	9	Demanded Hard Work	Class Management	7.0	11	6.8	7.7
8	3	1	6	Helped Students Feel Good About Being in Class	Personal	7.0	4.4	4.3	6.9
9	6	6	8	Had Good Class Control	Class Management	7.1	6.5	6.5	7.6
10	4	3	10	Related Well to Students	Personal	7.6	4.5	5.1	8.0
11	9	10	11	Was Fair in Grading & Evaluating	Instruction	8.7	8.9	8.3	8.8
12	10	13	12	Expected All to Perform Well	Personal	9.3	9.1	11	9.0
13	14	14	13	Exercised Strict Discipline	Class Management	10.1	12	12	10
14	13	12	14	Was Not Too Strict	Class Management	11.4	11	10	10

Bot = Botswana
Cal = California (USA)
Fin = Finland
Zim = Zimbabwe
Var Cat = Category of Variable into which teacher characteristic was clustered.

Spearman rank-order correlations of the mean country rankings of characteristics contributing to effective teaching are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5.
Correlation of Mean Rankings of Effective Teacher Characteristics

	Botswana	California	Finland
California	.56		
Finland	.52	.72	
Zimbabwe	.90	.75	.58

Examination of the matrix suggests two, perhaps contradictory, observations. First, it seems notable that four groups of teachers, from four disparate countries, respond so similarly to questions about factors contributing to good teaching. The range of the correlation values in the matrix, from a low of .52 to a high of .90, seems to indicate clearly that there is a broad consensus on the relative importance of many of the teacher characteristics in the questionnaire (Table 5). (It is of course, an open question whether such uniformity reflects values that are indigenous to the cultures in question or whether they reflect the effects of broad acculturation to the commonly held, western, norms of schooling.)

The second observation is that while there was particularly strong agreement between the African countries on the relative importance of the listed characteristics, the western rankings (i.e., those of California and Finland) were more like each other than like the African responses. In general, the Africans seem more concerned about the "instructional characteristics" of the "good teacher" with

Botswana and California, respectively, anchoring the opposite ends of the continuum. Three of the four top characteristics from Botswana, for example, are concerned with the Instructional aspects of teaching (with "knowledge of the subject matter" appearing to be particularly important). California respondents on the other hand, ranked the teacher's "personality" first in importance, with "subject knowledge" ranking eigth. California respondents, in fact, placed no Instructional characteristic higher than fifth place.

As a further analysis, the mean rankings for the items pertaining to each of the three categories of characteristics were aggregated by category into an inverted rank (so that a higher number now indicates a higher rank; i.e., a "one" would now become a "fourteen" and vice versa) and compared by country. Figure 1 shows the result.

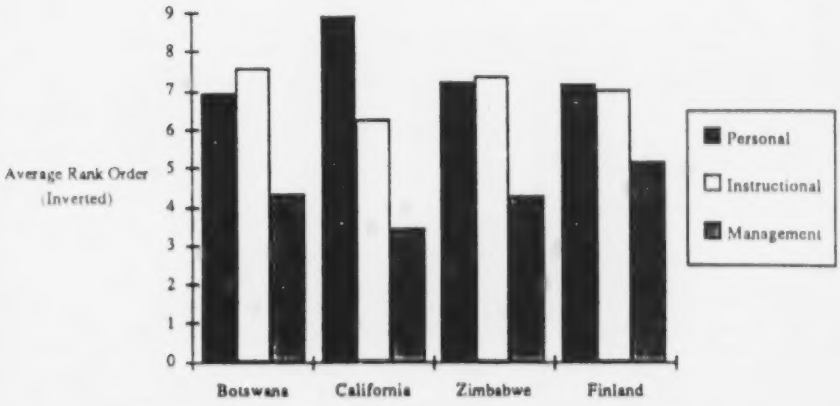

Figure 1. Inverted Mean Ranks of Effective Teacher Characteristics by Category

The polar positions of the California and Botswana respondents is again evident. California considered Personal factors to be of considerably greater importance than did the respondents from any of the other countries. Botswana respondents (and to a lesser extent, Zimbabwe) on the other hand, considered Instructional characteristics to be of more importance, though Personal characteristics were not considered unimportant. All four groups agreed that class management characteristics were of least importance.

3.3. RANKINGS OF INEFFECTIVE TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS

The same fourteen characteristics were repeated for consideration as factors contributing toward making the so-identified teachers seem ineffective. In most cases, the statements were reworded into a negative rather than positive format. Where a particular statement could be viewed as either negative or positive, it was phrased the same for both the effective and ineffective teachers. Table 6 presents the rankings for the Ineffective Teachers.

Table 6.
Mean Rankings of Characteristics Which Contribute Most Toward Perceived Teacher Ineffectiveness by Teachers from Four Countries.

Rank						Mean Ranking			
Bot	Cal	Fin	Zim	Characteristic	Var Cat	Bot	Cal	Fin	Zim
1	3	11	1	Unfriendly Personality	Personal	4.9	6.0	5.8	7.3
2	2	1	4	Unable to Make Students Feel Good About Being in Class	Personal	5.4	4.2	3.7	5.9
3	5	2	5	Lessons Were Uninteresting/ Not Motivating	Instruction	5.8	6.3	4.1	6.4
4	9	7	8	No Extra Help For Slow Learners	Instruction	5.8	8.2	7.6	7.2
5	6	3	3	Could Not Make Hard Subjects Understandable	Instruction	5.8	6.8	5.4	5.9
6	4	6	2	Did Not Care about Individual Students	Personal	6.0	6.0	7.3	5.8
7	1	4	7	Did Not Relate Well to Students	Personal	6.8	3.6	5.5	6.6
8	13	10	10	Knew Little About the Subject	Instruction	7.6	10	7.9	8.6
9	10	12	6	Exercised Strict Discipline	Class Management	8.2	8.7	10	6.6
10	7	5	9	Had Poor Class Control	Class Management	8.2	7.2	6.5	9.6
11	12	14	13	Was Not Too Strict	Class Management	9.4	10	11.2	10
12	11	9	12	Unfair in Marking/ Grading	Instruction	9.6	9.3	7.8	9.6
13	8	8	13	Did Not Expect Good Performance of All	Personal	9.9	7.8	7.7	10
14	14	13	11	Demanded Hard Work	Class Management	10.2	10	11	8.8

Bot = Botswana
Cal = California (USA)
Fin = Finland
Zim = Zimbabwe
Var Cat = Category of Variable into which teacher characteristic was clustered.

Spearman rank-order correlations of the country rankings of characteristics contributing to ineffective teaching are indicated in Table 7.

Table 7.
Correlation of Mean Ranking of Ineffective Teacher Characteristics

	Botswana	California	Finland
California	.69		
Finland	.53	.73	
Zimbabwe	.83	.72	.58

As shown in Table 7, the correlation matrix for characteristics of ineffective teaching suggests a similar pattern of relationship as was seen for effective teaching. In this matrix, Botswana has moved slightly toward the California position. The two African countries, nevertheless, continued to agree with each other, though at a slightly lower level, while Finnish respondents remained nearest to those from California and most unlike those from Africa. Once again, both the extent of the agreement as well as the differences seem notable.

The actual ranks assigned to specific characteristics of ineffective teaching showed several departures from those for effective teaching though many similar patterns reappeared. Overall, Personal characteristics appeared to be considered somewhat more important than in the rankings for effective teacher characteristics. The Botswana respondents, for example, gave Personal characteristics both first and second place rank (their highest Instructional characteristic in third rank). The Finnish respondents, on the other hand, ranked a Personal characteristic first but followed immediately with two Instructional characteristics while Zimbabwe respondents placed Personal characteristics in all three of the top ranks. California respondents

continued to give major emphasis to Personal characteristics, with their highest ranked Instructional characteristic appearing only in fifth place. Class management characteristics continued to occupy a relatively low place. These observations can be made more clearly from Figure 2 which again shows the aggregated mean ranks for items relating to each of the three categories. (Again inverted so that a higher number indicates a higher rank.)

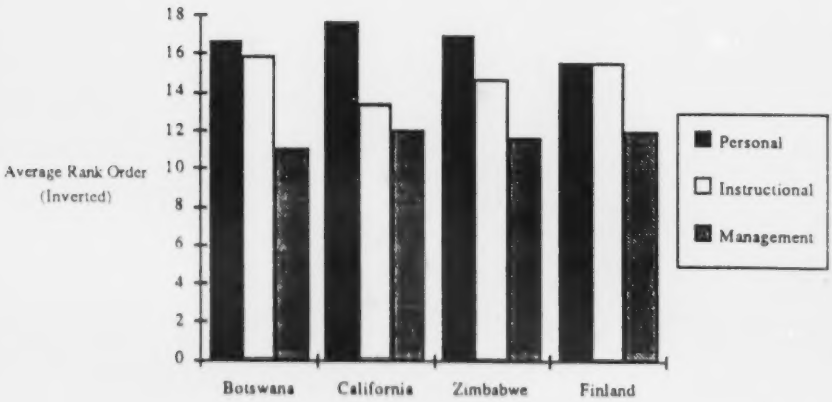

Figure 2. Inverted Mean Ranks of Ineffective Teacher Characteristics by Category.

Figure 2 suggests that when considering factors contributing toward ineffective teaching, Botswana responses (and to a lesser extent those from Zimbabwe) are somewhat more similar to those of California than when considering effective teaching in that greater importance was placed on personal characteristics. Finnish respondents, on the other hand, were unique in continuing to consider the absence of

positive Personal and Instructional characteristics as contributing about equally toward ineffectiveness. The high level of importance attached to Personal characteristics by California respondents continues to be clearly visible from the figure.

3.4. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM RANKINGS

Overall, it seems clear that Botswana respondents placed significantly greater emphasis on Instructional skills (i.e knowing the subject matter and being able to teach well) than Personal skills or characteristics (i.e., being friendly, relating well, caring about individual students) as contributors toward good teaching. However, Personal characteristics were more important (by their absence) as contributors toward being considered *ineffective*. That is, it would appear that for Botswana respondents, good Personal characteristics are a necessary but not sufficient condition for being considered effective.

For California respondents the major factors in being considered either effective or ineffective seem to be Personal characteristics. For these respondents, instructional skill would appear to be secondary. (An alternative explanation for this observation, could be that California respondents took for granted some basic level of instructional competence and therefore paid little attention to it -- an assumption that could not necessarily be made by the African respondents.) In any case, the finding that California respondents considered the more personalistic qualities of teaching to be most important seems consistent with the observations of Treffers (1987) who found that American teachers-in-training were much more likely to offer "pupil oriented" reasons for becoming a teacher (e.g. enjo-

ying and wanting to work with children) and as "qualities of a good teacher" (e.g., "empathetic," "caring and liking children") than were their Dutch counterparts who were more likely to offer "task oriented" responses to the same questions.

Finnish respondents were the most consistent of the sample in ranking both effective and ineffective teacher characteristics; indicating nearly equal importance for both Instructional and Personal characteristics as contributors to both effectiveness and ineffectiveness. Zimbabwe responses tended to fall between the Botswana responses and those of the Finns. Nevertheless, as indicated by the strong correlations between their respective rankings there is a marked tendency for Botswana and Zimbabwe respondents to rank the characteristics contributing to both effective and ineffective teaching similarly. California respondents occupy a space at the opposite end of that spectrum. All four of the national groups agreed that the class management characteristics were of least importance in comparison to the other two categories.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions and interpretation must be tentative, since the instrument used has only face validity and the restricted sample from each country cannot necessarily be regarded as representative and the findings themselves not unequivocal. At some risk, then, of over generalization the findings lead to several propositions.

At the most basic level, it seems clear that notions about factors that contribute to "good" and "poor" teaching" are both similar and different when comparing the countries represented in this sample. Thus, while there is broad agreement about which of the listed characteristics contribute toward effective and ineffective teaching, there are important differences. It seems reasonable to speculate that the social, cultural and (perhaps especially) educational contexts of these countries lead to different (probably implicit) philosophical assumptions about the role and purposes of education and schooling and, by extension, to notions of about the role and function of teaching. It is predictable, then, that ideas about what contributes to good and poor teaching would likewise differ. In the African countries, for example, where many, if not most, persons in the educational system are the first generation of their immediate family and social group to have been able to complete even primary school, education is perceived as a vehichle to enhanced personal opportunity -- hence the concern about learning content as reflected in the focus on the instructional competence and subject knowledge of the teacher. It seems reasonable to believe that the African respondents, especially in contrast to those from California, may view education more instrumentally; i.e., as means to an end -- qualification for the next higher level of education and an eventual place among the

economically and socially elite. Thus the "good teacher" is one who contributes significantly to mastery of subject content and to good performance on the exam which are the ultimate arbiters of educational progress in those countries. How one "feels" about the educational experience would seem to be less important.

In California and Finland, on the other hand, schooling has been not only available but compulsory for generations and may be perceived as less directly tied to personal advancement. It would appear that California respondents, in particular, consider the "process" of schooling to outweigh the content. (Suggesting, among other things, a markedly different perspective on the age-old debate of whether we teach "children" or "subjects"?).

The findings may similarly reflect different sets of assumptions about the fundamental purposes of education and the nature of teaching which grow out of their respective societal and educational traditions. Though education in both Botswana and Zimbabwe has undergone very rapid development that has been accompanied by significant changes in attitudes and educational philosophy, vestiges of the highly selective, meritocratic system of colonial education inherited from the British nevertheless remain. In such a system, the ability to advance into higher level careers and social status is directly determined by the level and the quality of the schools to which one is able to gain admission; and one of the basic purposes of education seems to be that of "sorting" and more or less permanently labeling people on the basis of how far they have managed to rise in the educational system. Thus it is critical that the school enable one to be "successful" in terms of content mastery. Teachers in such settings may be slow to change from their more didactic approach because they fear that

such a change would compromise mastery of content and thus restrict opportunities available to their students. (Not to mention that the teachers' own competence is frequently evaluated on the basis of how well their students perform on the selection examinations.) The California respondents, on the other hand, are the product of an education system in which the historically expressed aims have been pointedly egalitarian. Such aims have been foundational in that system for many years. It may be that in such a setting the concerns about the subjective experience of schooling outweigh concerns about the more objective "content."

From the above, then, it follows that discussion about what constitutes "good teaching" (and by implication, about what should be considered normative pedagogical wisdom) needs to take into account the social and cultural contexts of the schools in question. The findings seem clear in their implication that notions about the universality of characteristics of good teaching should not be accepted without question, that prescriptions for improvement of teaching must consider the context in which it is to take place and that, in any case, efforts to improve educational practice in developing countries must begin with an understanding of the interaction between the broad social, cultural and educational context and the proposed interventions.

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KAARINA YLI-RENKO

INTERKULTURELLE KOMMUNIKATION: EINE HERAUSFORDERUNG AN DIE DEUTSCHLEHRERAUSBILDUNG

1. LEBENSLANGES SPRACHENLERNEN IM HINBLICK AUF DIE ALLGEMEINBILDENDE SCHULE

Strukturelle Veränderungen innerhalb der Gesellschaft und der ungeheure Wissenszuwachs sind die Ursache für die Forderung nach lebenslangem Lernen auf allen Gebieten. Schnelle Internationalisierung, die Integration Europas und die Anforderungen dieser Internationalisierung an die Arbeitswelt haben zur Betonung der Sprachbeherrschung geführt. In immer zahlreicheren Berufen werden von den Angestellten so gute Sprachkenntnisse verlangt, dass es unmöglich wäre, sie erst in der Arbeitswelt zu erwerben. Auch das Sprachenlernen fordert eine lebenslange Ausbildung.

Der Sprachunterricht soll in der allgemeinbildenden Schule so angelegt sein, dass er auf die bestmögliche Weise den weiterführenden Sprachstudien in den späteren Phasen der Ausbildung und der Arbeitswelt nutzt. Die Schule kann natürlich nicht die auf Spezialgebieten geforderten Sprachkenntnisse vermitteln, sondern nur die Voraussetzungen dafür schaffen. Es genügt, wenn die allgemeinbildende Schule die Grundkenntnisse einer Sprache, den Mut zum Sprachgebrauch und die Bereitschaft schafft, sich sprachlich weiterzubilden.

Gerade bei der deutschen Sprache, die heute meistens nur wenige Jahre mit geringer Stundenzahl in der Schule gelernt wird und die - im Gegensatz zum Englischen - ausserhalb der Schule in vielen Ländern kaum zu hören ist, ist das Aneignen einer positiven

Einstellung nicht nur zu weiteren Studien, sondern zu der Sprache selbst und den deutschsprachigen Völkern besonders wichtig.

2. *DEUTSCH ALS DRITTE FREMDSPRACHE IN DER SCHULE*

Die Forderung, dass der allgemeinsprachliche Unterricht heute immer auch eine fachsprachliche Komponente aufweisen solle, also fachübergreifend angelegt sein solle, ist - wenigstens was die Sprechfertigkeit im Schulunterricht betrifft - überzogen. Dies gilt zumindest für den Deutschunterricht in einem Land wie Finnland, wo die Landessprache keine germanische Sprache ist und wo Deutsch überwiegend als dritte Fremdsprache nach Englisch und nach der zweiten Landessprache Schwedisch unterrichtet wird. Meine Untersuchung (Yli-Renko 1989a), bei der 246 Abiturienten, also Schüler der Abschlussklasse des Gymnasiums, aus verschiedenen Teilen des Landes an einem 10 - 15 Minuten langen Interview mit einem deutschen Muttersprachler teilgenommen haben, hat erwiesen, dass auch über so zentrale gesellschaftspolitische Themen, wie z.B. Abrüstung und Umweltpolitik, keine wirkliche Konversation entstehen konnte. Diese Themengebiete gehören zwar zum offiziellen Curriculum; sie werden aber nicht aktiv gelernt. Das Curriculum ist mit Inhalten überladen und immer noch durch eine traditionelle Grammatikprogression belastet.

Die meisten Schüler, die 2 1/2 Jahre Deutsch gelernt hatten, konnten auf dem sog. "Survival"-Niveau wenigstens ausreichend auskommen, also einfache Fragen beantworten und selbst einfache

Fragen stellen, wie auch eine einfache Konversation führen, z.B. etwas im Café bestellen und bezahlen. Die meisten Schüler, die 4 1/2 Jahre Deutsch gelernt hatten, konnten das zweite Niveau, das eigentliche Konversationsniveau, wenigstens ausreichend erreichen. Die Themen waren konkret, z.B. das eigene Leben, Familie, Hobbies, Arbeit, Reisen, usw.. 20 % der Schüler konnten sogar knappe Meinungen über allgemeinere Themen äussern, wie z.B. Alkoholpolitik, das neue Kurssystem im Gymnasium und Gleichberechtigung.

Der grösste einschränkende Faktor bei der Konversation waren der geringe Wortschatz und der Mangel an Sprechübung. Die Schüler hatten ihrer eigenen Äusserung nach selten vorher Gelegenheit gehabt, sich über einen etwas längeren Zeitraum (etwa 1 - 5 Minuten) auf Deutsch zu äussern. Eine interessante Beobachtung war zusätzlich, dass für ca. 50 % der Schüler dieses Interview der erste Kontakt mit einem Deutschen war.

Als Kontrollgruppe wurden 50 Schüler interviewt, die Deutsch als erste Fremdsprache 9 1/2 Jahre lang gelernt hatten - es gibt in ganz Finnland etwa 300 von ihnen in der letzten Klasse im Gymnasium. Erstaunlich war, dass sie in der Wortwahl und im Umfang des Wortschatzes nicht viel besser waren als die Schüler, die 4 1/2 Jahre Deutsch gelernt hatten. Sie beherrschten aber die Grammatik sehr gut und konnten fliessender von ihren eigenen Erfahrungen sprechen als die anderen.

Der wichtigste unterscheidende Faktor bei der Sprechfertigkeit der Schüler war aber nicht die Länge der Lernzeit, sondern der Aufenthalt in einem deutschsprachigen Land. Die Schüler, die

Gelegenheit gehabt hatten, in Deutschland an einem Sprachkurs teilzunehmen oder als Gast in einer Familie zu leben, konnten besser Deutsch sprechen als solche, die keinen Aufenthalt gehabt hatten. Einige haben sogar eigene Impulse in der Konversation gezeigt.

Diese Untersuchung deutet darauf hin, dass es beim Deutschunterricht mit 2-3 Wochenstunden wirklich nur um Grundkenntnisse der Sprache gehen kann. Die Lerninhalte sollten aber doch die allgemeinen Sprechsituationen der Arbeitswelt einbeziehen, und der ganze Sprachunterricht sollte die Fertigkeiten berücksichtigen, die die interkulturelle Kommunikation verlangt.

3. ANPSPRÜCHE DER ARBEITSWELT

Was den Bedarf der deutschen Sprache in der Arbeitswelt betrifft, so zeigen die Forschungen, dass der grösste Bedarf an Deutsch im Handel und in der Industrie sowie im Tourismus steht (Berggren 1982, Yli-Renko 1982, 1985, 1988, Mehtäläinen 1987a, 1987b).

Die wichtigsten Teilgebiete der Sprachbeherrschung sind die mündliche Kommunikation in Arbeitssituationen, die mündliche Kommunikation in Nicht-Arbeitssituationen und das Lesen von Fachtexten. Als Nicht-Arbeits-situationen werden u.a. erwähnt: allerlei "small talk" (soziale Konversation), Erzählen vom eigenen Land und dessen Lebensverhältnissen, verschiedene Reisesituationen, Hotel und Wohnen, Restaurant und Esssituationen und der Gebrauch des Telefons in Routineangelegenheiten. Als Schwierigkeiten werden u.a. "small talk", mangelnder Mut zum Sprechen, Flüssigkeit der Sprechfertigkeit, Argumentieren und Sprechen am Telefon genannt. (s. Berggren 1982, Yli-Renko 1982).

Wenn diese Fertigkeiten und die mündliche alltägliche Kommunikation schon in der Schule effektiv geübt würden, wären sie keine oder kaum mehr Schwierigkeiten im Arbeitsleben. Die finnischen Abiturienten, die ich getestet habe (Yli-Renko 1989a), konnten z.B. schon etwas im Restaurant bestellen, aber das war kein höfliches deutsches Benehmen - übrigens auch kein finnisches. Richtig verstanden enthalten diese Alltagssituationen keineswegs nur die von vielen verachtete sog. Touristensprache. Die Schüler lernen dabei schon gebildetes Benehmen und wie sie ihr eigenes Land in häufigen interkulturellen Kommunikationssituationen vertreten können. Zu den Alltagssituationen gehört schon

eine grosse Menge an interkultureller Kommunikation, die das Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts in der Schule sein soll.

Das Ziel der interkulturellen Kommunikationsfähigkeit geht von der Voraussetzung aus, dass das Verhalten des Menschen durch seine nationale Gesellschaft und ihre Geschichte und durch seine Stellung in dieser Gesellschaft geprägt ist. Rein sprachliche Elemente gestalten nur einen Teil der interkulturellen Kommunikation. Die Sprache setzt die Kenntnisse der sozialen Regeln voraus, die das kommunikative Handeln in dem zugehörigen Land bestimmen. Das kommunikative Handeln fängt mit den Umgangsformen und Gebräuchen im Alltag an.

Die Wichtigkeit, das Verhalten von Menschen eines Kulturkreises in der interkulturellen Kommunikation zu verstehen, ist in der Geschäftswelt schon weit und breit erkannt. Z. B. veranstalten grosse Firmen in Finnland für ihre Mitarbeiter sog. Kulturseminare, damit sie die Kultur eines Landes kennenlernen und das Verhalten der Menschen besser verstehen. Solche Seminare befassen sich mit der Geschichte des Volkes, seiner Religion oder Ideologie, dem Stand der Wirtschaft und den sozialen Strukturen, in denen die Menschen leben, sowie auch mit den Ungangsformen des Landes. (Herlin 1988).

Es gibt auch schon reichlich Literatur über die typischen Umgangsformen der verschiedenen Länder, die für Geschäftsleute als Richtschnur zu erfolgreichem Handeln und Verhandeln mit Ausländern gedacht ist. In solchen Büchern werden z.B. folgende Züge als deutsche Eigenheiten erwähnt:

Förmlichkeit, häufiger Gebrauch von Höflichkeitsformen, Gebrauch der Titel bei der Anrede und reichliches Händeschütteln, sogar mehrere Male am Tag mit denselben Menschen. Als schweizerische Eigenheit wird die Scheu vor persönlichen Fragen erwähnt.

Als typische deutsche Charakterzüge gelten Fleiss, Zähigkeit bei der Arbeit und Disziplin, Organisationstalent, Effizienz, absolute Pünktlichkeit, Hektik, Pedanterie; Haarspalterei soll eine Tugend sein. (u.a. Rischar 1982, Axtell 1985).

Diese Eigenheiten werden Menschen aus dem ganzen Volk zugeschrieben. Auch wenn es grobe Verallgemeinerungen sind und sie als Stereotype gelten, stellen sie nützliche Grundinformationen dar, auf welchen Gebieten es interkulturelle Unterschiede gibt, die Misserfolge verursachen können.

Wenn die sozialen Regeln von denen der eigenen Kultur sehr abweichen, können sie trotz guter Sprachkenntnisse als soziokulturelle Barrieren in der Kommunikation störend wirken. Eine bekannte Tatsache ist, dass sprachliche Fehler leichter übersehen werden als pragmatische Fehler (s. Lehtonen 1984).

Ausser Informationsbüchern für Geschäftsleute gibt es sehr wenige vergleichende Studien zur interkulturellen Kommunikation. Widén (1985) hat eine Untersuchung über interkulturelle Verständigung am Beispiel der finnisch-deutschen Kommunikation vorgelegt.

Die Hauptunterschiede der deutsch-finnischen Kommunikation sind in der Zeitauffassung, in der Reaktionsgeschwindigkeit und im

Ertragen des Schweigens in der Kommunikation. Der Finne lehnt die deutsche Hektik ab. Und einem Deutschen kommt der Finne in der Konversation langsam vor. Es gibt ähnliche Unterschiede in der finnisch-deutschen Kommunikation, wie sie es zwischen der amerikanischen und der chinesisch-japanischen Kultur gibt. Die Finnen - wie auch die Chinesen und Japaner - akzeptieren das Schweigen in der Kommunikation.

Widén betont, dass es sich nicht nur um die langsamere sprachliche Reaktion an sich handle, sondern vielmehr um verschiedene Kommunikationsstrategien. Die Finnen bringen ihre Denkarbeit nicht zum Ausdruck wie es die Deutschen und Amerikaner tun mit ständigem Sprechen. Der Finne zeigt z.B. nicht, dass er die gestellte Frage verstanden hat, sondern denkt über die Antwort nach und bringt erst das fertige Produkt zum Ausdruck. Der Deutsche erwartet aber schon einen Zwischenbescheid darüber, ob seine Frage überhaupt verstanden worden ist, während dem Finnen von seiner gewohnten Kommunikationsstrategie her diese Erwartung gar nicht einfällt, wenn er nicht ausdrücklich darauf aufmerksam gemacht wird. (Widén 1985, 168.) In so einem Fall schlägt Widén eine kurze Zwischenbemerkung vor wie etwa "Moment mal, ich muss mir die Sache überlegen", um eine Konfliktsituation in der Kommunikation zu vermeiden.

Meiner Untersuchung nach (Yli-Renko 1985) könnten aber an dem Schweigen der Finnen gerade in der deutschen Kommunikation teilweise auch die finnischen Deutschlehrer schuld sein, die die richtigen Formen beim Sprechen betonen und so dem Schüler den Mut nehmen, den Mund aufzutun, bevor das Ganze im Kopf richtig vorformuliert ist.

Das Ziel der Untersuchung, die ich (Yli-Renko 1990) über die interkulturelle Kommunikation zwischen deutschen Muttersprachlern und Finnen angestellt habe, war herauszufinden, durch welche sprachlichen Mängel und kommunikativen Eigenheiten die mündliche Kommunikation von Finnen mit Deutschsprachigen beinträchtigt wird und ob es solche Probleme in der Kommunikation gibt, die auf den unterschiedlichen kulturellen Hintergrund zurückzuführen sind. 129 in Finnland lebende Informanten aus der Bundesrepublik, der DDR, Österreich und der Schweiz haben an der Untersuchung teilgenommen.

Die Resultate zeigen, dass langsames Tempo und sprachliche Unbeholfenheit sowie die Scheu der Finnen, Deutsch zu sprechen, den Deutschsprachigen aufgefallen sind. Die deutschsprachige Kommunikation mit Finnen ist oft durch begrenzten Wortschatz und falsche Wortwahl beeinträchtigt. Das Verhalten der Finnen scheint einem Deutschen distanziert und zurückhaltend. Die Deutschen sind der Meinung, dass die monotone Intonation der Finnen einen lähmenden Einfluss auf die Konversation haben kann. Auch waren sich die Informanten darüber einig, dass Schweigen charakteristisch für die Finnen ist. Am Telefon ist das Schweigen der Finnen für den Deutschen besonders peinlich. Auch gehöre z. B. Seufzen zur Kommunikation.

Weiter wundern sich die Deutschen über das häufige Duzen und beklagen sich darüber, dass junge Finnen die Sie-Formen gar nicht kennen. Auch sonst vermissen die Deutschen Höflichkeitsformeln in der deutschen Konversation der Finnen. "Bitte", "Danke", "Entschuldigung" usw. werden sparsam gebraucht.

Bei den Umgangsformen wird u.a. erwähnt, dass die Finnen nicht so viel Hand schütteln wie die Deutschen. Dass die Sauna getrennt besucht wird und in Finnland kein Kommunikationszentrum ist, ist eine Überraschung für die Deutschen. Die Stellung der Frau, auch die der Hausfrau, sei dominierender und gleichberechtigter als in Deutschland. Jemand hat sogar vorgeschlagen, dass die finnischen Männer sich emanzipieren müssten!

Charakteristisch für die Finnen ist auch, dass sie viel weniger nonverbale Kommunikationsmittel gebrauchen als die Deutschen. Sie haben weniger Körperbewegung, berühren einander weniger und stehen nicht so nahe bei dem Gesprächspartner wie die Deutschen. Der Gesichtsausdruck der Finnen ist indifferenter als der der Deutschen. Die Kommunikation der Finnen ist mehr aufs Wort konzentriert. Das Äussere stimmt oft nicht damit überein.

Die meisten DDR-Bürger, Schweizer und Österreicher, die an der Untersuchung teilgenommen haben, waren im allgemeinen derselben Meinung wie die Bundesrepublikaner, von denen die Mehrheit der Antworten stammen. Den DDR-Bürgern ist zusätzlich in Finnland eine grössere Beziehung zur Natur aufgefallen als in der DDR. Umwelt hat aber in Finnland einen viel weniger hohen Stellenwert als in der Schweiz. Besonders klagen die Schweizer, dass das Schliessen von Freundschaften in Finnland ein langwieriger Prozess sei und die Finnen viel zu steif seien. Die Österreicher vermissen herzlichere Grussformeln: Umarmen, Küssen, mehr persönliche Vorstellung von der finnischen Seite und mehr Grüssen im allgemeinen.

Ich habe eine Untersuchung auch über die interkulturelle Kommunikation zwischen englischen Muttersprachlern und Finnen angestellt und ähnliche Resultate bekommen (Yli-Renko 1989b). Die meisten Informanten waren der Meinung, dass die grammatische Kompetenz der Finnen, mit denen sie Umgang haben, gut genug ist. Die Faktoren, die die Kommunikation beeinträchtigen, gehören zu anderen Gebieten der kommunikativen Kompetenz, nämlich der soziolinguistischen, der strategischen und der Diskurskompetenz (Canale 1983). Die interkulturelle Kommunikationsfähigkeit setzt alle diese vier Komponenten der kommunikativen Kompetenz voraus.

Hieraus ergibt sich die Notwendigkeit, die Lernbereiche des Fremdsprachenunterrichts im Hinblick auf die Ansprüche des Arbeitslebens, des ganzen gesellschaftlichen Zusammenlebens neu zu definieren. Der Erkenntnisstand von Sprach- und Sozialwissenschaften muss berücksichtigt werden. Diese Aufgaben des Fremdsprachenunterrichts stellen neue Anforderungen an die Fachdidaktik. Sie muss heute vorrangig die Voraussetzung für den Erwerb interkultureller Kommunikationsfähigkeit schaffen. Für die Ausbildung, natürlich auch für die Fortbildung der Lehrer, ist das Ziel der interkulturellen Kommunikation im Fremdsprachenunterricht von erheblicher Bedeutung. Aufgabe der Fremdsprachendidaktik ist es, den Spracherwerb und den Zugang zur fremden Gesellschaft konsequent in eine Strategie zum Erwerb von interkultureller Kommunikationsfähigkeit umzusetzen.

Zur interkulturellen Kommunikation gehören auch solche persönlichen Eigenschaften wie die Bereitschaft, in einer Atmosphäre der Toleranz und der Empathie das Fremde zu akzeptieren und

Vorurteile abzubauen. Nach Wragg (1984) werden solche sozialen und interpersönlichen Fertigkeiten und Einstellungen in Zukunft immer wichtiger für alle Menschen. Das lebenslange Lernen erfordert Kreativität und die Fähigkeit zum autonomen Lernen in eigener Verantwortung. (s. Kohonen 1988). Die Aufgabe der Schule, also die Aufgabe des Lehrers, ist, flexible und sich entwickelnde Individuen zu erziehen.

4. ANSPRÜCHE UND WIRKLICHKEIT IN DER SCHULE

Von der Lernmotivation aus gesehen ist es wichtig, dass die Schüler die Inhalte und Methoden des Unterrichts für interessant und nützlich halten. Die Untersuchung beweist (Yli-Renko 1985), dass die meisten Schüler (70 %) im Gymnasium in Finnland das wahlfreie Deutsch wegen des zukünftigen Bedarfs wählen. Was die Ansprüche der Schüler in Hinsicht auf Inhalte und Sprachfertigkeiten betrifft, sind sie denen der Arbeitswelt ähnlich. Das wichtigste Ziel des Deutschunterrichts sollte nach Ansicht der Schüler die Sprechfertigkeit in Alltagssituationen sein (Yli-Renko 1985).

Bei näherer Betrachtung der heutigen Schulcurricula kann festgestellt werden, dass sie im allgemeinen inhaltlich schon den erwähnten Ansprüchen von Arbeitswelt und Schülern entsprechen. Das Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts ist wohl überall in der Welt die kommunikative Kompetenz und die allseitige Entwicklung der Persönlichkeit des Schülers. Daraus folgt aber nicht unbedingt, dass die Ziele als solche im Unterricht verwirklicht werden. Der Einfluss des Curriculums auf den Unterricht hängt in grossem Masse von der Interpretation des Lehrers ab, die wieder auf früheren Erfahrungen, eigenen Voraussetzungen und besonders auf den in der formalen Lehrerausbildung angeeigneten Grundanschauungen des Lehrers aufbaut. Diese Grundanschauungen sind mehr oder weniger bewusst angewandte Theorien, die die Lösungen in der Unterrichtspraxis steuern (Svingby 1978). Sarason (1973) hat sogar behauptet, dass die Lehrer vielleicht nicht offiziell einer Schulreform widerstreben, aber die Reform wird so durchgeführt, dass praktisch alles bleibt, wie es immer gewesen ist.

Meine Forschungen über die Verwirklichung der Ziele des Deutschunterrichts in der gymnasialen Oberstufe (Yli-Renko 1985) in Finnland bestätigen dieses traditionelle Lehrerverhalten. Auch wenn das Ziel des Unterrichts die kommunikative Kompetenz ist und die Lehrmaterialien ziemlich kommunikativ sind, lernen die Schüler nach Ansicht der Lehrer am besten die deutsche Grammatik. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht wird im allgemeinen die Form der Kommunikation, nicht der Inhalt betont. Der Grund liegt teilweise in den sog. Rahmenfaktoren des Unterrichts aber auch in der philologischen Ausbildung der Lehrer, die grammatikbetont ist.

Meine neuesten Untersuchungsergebnisse (Yli-Renko 1991) legen dar, dass auch die Schüler selbst den Unterricht in allen Sprachen: Englisch, Schwedisch, Deutsch, Französisch und Russisch im finnischen Gymnasium für zu theoretisch halten. Die Grammatik wird im Sprachunterricht zu viel betont und der mündliche Sprachgebrauch zu wenig geübt. Die Kultur wird als abgetrennte Kulturkunde, nicht als integrierter Teil des Sprachgebrauchs unterrichtet.

Die affektiven Ziele sind nach Meinung der Deutschlehrer im Unterricht schwer zu verwirklichen. Viele Fachlehrer, auch Deutschlehrer halten sich noch immer nicht für Erzieher. Auch der Deutschlehrer muss die Schüler sowohl als Sprecher und Lerner der deutschen Sprache als auch als Menschen erziehen und dabei die allseitige persönliche, soziale und kognitive Entwicklung des Schülers fördern.

Vielleicht sehen die Deutschlehrer das offizielle Ziel "die kommunikative Kompetenz" zu eng. Die interkulturelle Kommunikation wäre als offizielles Lernziel praxisnäher und im Inhalt weiter. Sie umfasst sowohl die kommunikative Kompetenz als auch die Erziehungsziele der Schule. Darin sind aber auch Friedenserziehung und internationales Verständnis enthalten.

5. SCHLUSSFOLGERUNG BETR. DIE DEUTSCHLEHRERAUSBILDUNG

Die Ansprüche der interkulturellen Kommunikation von Arbeitswelt und Schule an die Deutschlehrerausbildung sind so gewaltig, dass auch die philologische Ausbildung, die den grössten Teil der Sprachlehrerausbildung ausmacht, diesen Ansprüchen und den Inhalten der Lehrertätigkeit entsprechen muss.

Ausser der vielseitigen und verinnerlichten interkulturellen Kommunikationsfähigkeit - die grammatischen Sprachkenntnisse nebst Sprachgeschichte, Literatur und ein kurzer Kurs in Landeskunde genügen nach den Aussagen der Referendare nicht - sollten z.B. die Seminararbeiten mit dem Unterricht verknüpft sein. Solche Themen könnten z.B. die Beurteilung von Lehrmaterialien unter dem Gesichtspunkt der interkulturellen Kommunikationsfähigkeit und unter dem linguistischen Gesichtspunkt, die Untersuchung von deutschen Kommunikationsstrategien, Diskurskompetenz, soziolinguistische Kompetenz, Klassendiskurs und Interlanguage usw. sein. Wenn die Theorien schon bekannt sind, wird eine tiefere didaktische Anwendung der Theorien in der pädagogischen Fakultät möglich. (s. Kohonen 1988).

Aber nicht nur wegen der Aneignung der Lehrerfertigkeiten, sondern auch wegen des immensen Zuwachses an Wissen ist es wichtig, dass die Auszubildenden wissenschaftlich zu arbeiten lernen. Die Auszubildenden müssen ein richtiges Bild vom Wissen und seiner Veränderung bekommen. Die Fähigkeit, pädagogische Phänomene wissenschaftlich zu untersuchen, befähigt den Lehrer, Erforscher der eigenen Arbeit zu sein und eine kritische, problematisierende Einstellung zum Unterricht zu entwickeln.

Weil sich die Ausbildung des Lehrers, auch die des Deutschlehrers, der Untersuchung nach (Svingby 1978, Yli-Renko 1985) auf die ganze Karriere auswirkt, sollte sowohl in der philologischen und pädagogischen Ausbildung als auch im Lehrerpraktikum ausser den berufsspezifischen Fertigkeiten die Bedeutung der lebenslangen persönlichen Entwicklung betont werden. Um die Schüler zu selbständigen Lernern für das ganze Leben erziehen zu können, muss der Deutschlehrer selbst flexibel und geistig beweglich sein.

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